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BRITISH AFFAIRS

A QUARTERLY MAGAZINE

BRITAIN AND THE COMMON MARKET

Special Articles

CONTROL OF MONOPOLIES AND RESTRICTIVE
PRACTICES

THE TOWN PLANNER AT WORK
INDIA'S SECOND FIVE YEAR PLAN

NEW NATIONS AND DEVELOPMENT ISSUES

Africanization: Progress and Problems

Empire to Commonwealth

British Economic Aid for Africa

Health in Africa—The British Contribution

IN BRITAIN

Britain's 1961 Population Censuses

The Work of the Arts Council, Private Bills

Research for Industry, Industrial Welfare Society

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CONTENTS

FIFTY YEARS OF NUCLEAR SCIENCE	102
BRITAIN AND THE COMMON MARKET	104
BRITAIN'S 1961 POPULATION CENSUSES	108
THE WORK OF THE ARTS COUNCIL OF GREAT BRITAIN	111
RESEARCH FOR INDUSTRY	116
INDUSTRIAL WELFARE SOCIETY	119
by William Durham	
CONTROL OF MONOPOLIES AND RESTRICTIVE PRACTICES	122
by John Drinkwater	
THE TOWN PLANNER AT WORK	129
by Sir Frederic Osborn	
PRIVATE BILLS	132
INDIA'S SECOND FIVE YEAR PLAN	134
by E. P. W. Da Costa	
NEW NATIONS AND DEVELOPMENT ISSUES	
Africanization: Progress and Problems	139
by George Bennett	
Empire to Commonwealth	143
British Economic Aid for Africa	146
The East African High Commission	149
Health in Africa—The British Contribution	150

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British Affairs

Berlin has dominated the recent news. In August, the British garrison was brought up to full strength. Additional air and armored units were promptly moved up. The Foreign Secretary defined three issues on which there could be no compromise:—

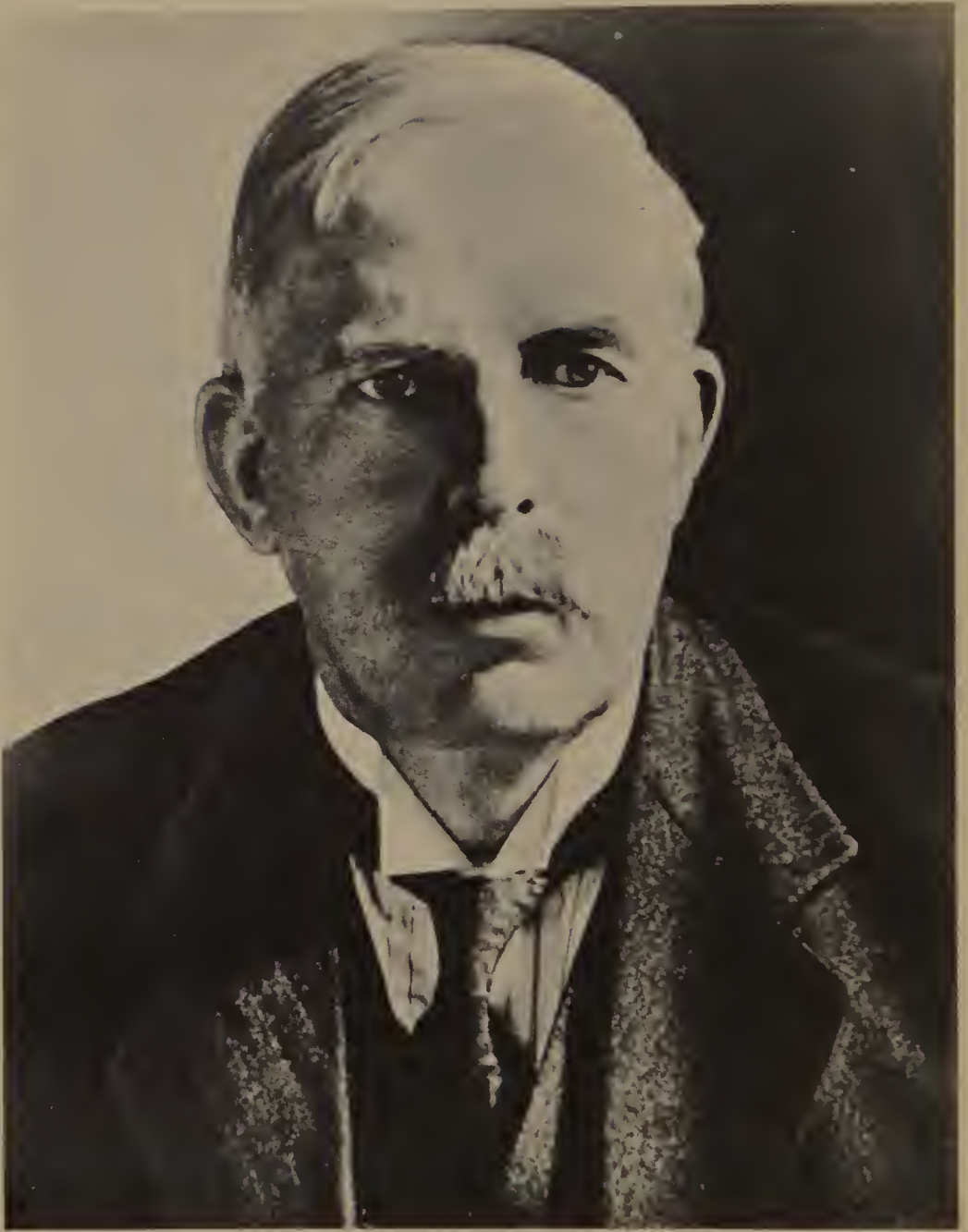
- The right of access of West Berlin by the Allies.
- The right to station forces in West Berlin.
- The right of West Berliners to choose their own future.

In subsequent notes, the British Government, like that of the U.S., warned the Russian Government that infringement of these rights would have the most serious consequences, for which the Russian Government would be held responsible.

Britain also joined U.S. in the protest of September 3, against the resumption of nuclear testing. A show of strength plus an undiminished readiness to enter honorable negotiations are the twin necessary ingredients of a policy designed to bring home to the Russians the danger of their losing control of the artificial crises they invent.

On July 31, the Prime Minister, Mr. Macmillan, announced the Government's intention to seek adherence to the Treaty of Rome, under clause 237 of that Treaty. After a debate of great intensity, Parliament endorsed this course. Negotiations are expected to start this year, but may be lengthy. Britain will be obliged to seek safeguards for the trade of some of her Commonwealth partners who stand to lose heavily if Britain places herself, without qualification, behind the Common Market tariff. Hitherto, Britain has admitted duty-free the bulk of the Commonwealth goods affected.

Britons themselves have been preoccupied by another and very pressing issue. Between January and July, Britain lost almost one quarter of her gold and foreign exchange reserves. The margin of reserves on which Britain is accustomed to operate is of course much smaller than is the case with the U.S. Accordingly, corrective measures were announced July 25. They included new taxes to cut domestic consumption, the re-introduction of a 7% bank rate (to curb borrowing) and the negotiation of a massive drawing right or credit with the International Monetary Fund.



Lord Rutherford 1871-1937

Fifty Years of Nuclear Science

In 1911, fifty years ago, as a result of exhaustive experiments at the Universities of Cambridge (England), McGill (Canada) and finally Manchester (England), Lord Rutherford advanced with clear confirmatory experimental evidence the nuclear conception of the atom. He stated that the atom consisted of a heavy electrically charged center called the nucleus around which revolved a number of electrons at distances which were vast compared with the size of the nucleus and electrons.

Rutherford also formulated the disintegration theory which stated that atoms of radio active substances are unstable. They spontaneously emit high speed electrically charged alpha or beta particles and simultaneously become transformed into other elements. He had already many years previously showed the existence of alpha and beta radiation from uranium.

He confined his researches to the pure theory of the atomic structure and indeed, went out of his way at one time to deprecate the practical consequences of his theoretical researchers. It was in 1917, at the Cavendish Laboratory in England, that Rutherford performed the experiment popularly described as 'splitting the atom' by bombarding nitrogen atoms with X-rays from radium with the result that hydrogen was liberated. This was the first time the possibility of disintegrating the atom had been demonstrated practically.

No one man would claim the credit for initiating the modern science of nuclear physics and in Rutherford's day, the scientists and laboratories of the civilised world worked closely together. The work at Manchester depended very much on the experiments with X-rays proceeding in various European laboratories and it was not long before Niels Bohr and Hans Geiger came to join Rutherford. Soon Rutherford's group at Manchester identified for all who were to follow, the main structure of the atom, Rutherford himself defining the concept of the nucleus, Chadwick, his pupil, later identifying the neutron and Soddy and others going on to build up the picture of isotopes on which so much subsequent research was founded. It was at Rutherford's instigation that Cockcroft and Walton disintegrated lithium in 1932 by radiation produced artificially in the laboratory.

Britain and The Common Market

"That this House supports the decision of Her Majesty's Government to make formal application under Article 237 of the Treaty of Rome, in order to initiate negotiations to see if satisfactory arrangements can be made to meet the special interests of the United Kingdom, of the Commonwealth and of the European Free Trade Association; and further accepts the undertaking of Her Majesty's Government that no agreement affecting these special interests or involving British sovereignty will be entered into until it has been approved by this House after full consultation with other Commonwealth countries, by whatever procedure they may generally agree."

On August 3, 1961, The House of Commons divided on the above motion, Ayes 313, Noes 5.

Introducing the motion, the Prime Minister said:

"We must all agree that the problems involved in the future of our relations with Europe are among the most difficult and the most important that the nation has ever had to face. The moment of decision, however, has not yet come. What the House is now asked to do is to support the Government's proposal to initiate negotiations on the Common Market within the terms of the Motion. When those negotiations are completed one way or the other, the House will have to pass judgment.

The underlying issues, European unity, the future of the Commonwealth, the strength of the free world, are all of capital importance, and it is because we firmly believe that the United Kingdom has a positive part to play in their development—for they are all related—that we ask the House to approve what we are doing.

After the last war, the process of reconciliation in Europe was itself a deliberate and positive act in which forbearance and even forgiveness played their part. It first took, I remember, a dramatic form when, in 1950, the German delegates were admitted to the Council of Europe. At that time, I remember, my Right Honorable Friend the Member for Woodford (Sir W. Churchill) conceived the notion of what he called the three interlocking groups, Britain and the Commonwealth, Europe, and the New World. He spoke of them, I remember, as three leaves of a piece of clover, or, again, as three intersecting circles. Of course, he was right in his analysis, but ever since then we have been, in one way or another, trying to find a practical solution to the problem of their interconnection.

N.A.T.O. brought together thirteen nations of Europe, one great Commonwealth country—Canada—and the United States in an alliance partly military, partly political. The other Commonwealth countries took no part, not because they did not sympathize with our purpose—many of them certainly did—but because they were distant from the Atlantic area. Some nations of Europe, like Sweden, remained neutral, partly through their tradition and partly through their position. In the O.E.E.C., the European group was somewhat widened to include countries such as Switzerland. Again, in the Council of Europe, we had another slight variation.

Meanwhile, there has grown up the practical application of the aspirations towards unity in continental Europe by the formation of the European Economic Community. I ask Honorable Members to note the word “economic”. The Treaty of Rome does not deal with defense. It does not deal with foreign policy. It deals with trade and some of the social aspects of human life which are most connected with trade and production.

Whatever views are held of what should be our relations with the E.E.C., everyone will readily acknowledge the tremendous achievement involved. Its most striking feature, of course, is the reconciliation of France and Germany. That is on the moral side. But on the political side these countries have made remarkable economic progress in recent years. Of course, that is not all due to the European Economic Community. Nevertheless, the Community has imparted an impetus to the economic growth of the Six. The Community has developed a dynamic of its own. Above all, it is an idea which has gripped men’s minds.

At the time when E. E. C. was being discussed, most people felt that it would be dangerous to split Europe in this way, and a great effort was made for two years, during negotiations in which my Right Honorable Friend the President of the Board of Trade played a conspicuous part, to form a free trade area upon an industrial basis, excluding agriculture, thus allowing almost all European countries to take part.

This negotiation, which at one time, seemed to have encouraging prospects of success, finally broke down. After this setback, some of the countries outside the Six formed the European Free Trade Association and one of its declared objects was to work for wider trading arrangements in Western Europe, and E. F. T. A. has steadfastly pursued that objective ever since its inception.

I am myself convinced that the existence of this division in Europe, although it is superficially of a commercial character, undoubtedly detracts from the political strength and unity of Western Europe. If we are to be involved in Europe at all, then we have a duty—and so have all the other countries in Europe—to seek some means of resolving the causes of potential division.

In this country, of course, there is a long tradition of isolation. In this, as in most countries, there is a certain suspicion of foreigners. There is also the additional division between us and Continental Europe of a wholly different development of our legal, administrative and, to some extent, political systems. If we are basically united by our religious faith, even here great divisions have grown up.

Nevertheless, it is perhaps worth recording that in every period when the world has been in danger of tyrants or aggression, Britain has abandoned isolationism. It is true that when the immediate danger was removed, we have sometimes tried to return to an insular policy. In due course we have abandoned it. In any case, who could say today that our present danger had been removed, or will soon disappear? Who doubts that we have to face a long and exhausting struggle over more than one generation if the forces of Communistic expansion are to be contained?

I have sometimes heard it asked, "What would happen if one of the countries with which we might be associated in Europe fell into political difficulties, even went Communist? Would not this have a grave effect on us if we were members?" Of course, but the effects would be equally grave whether we were members of the Common Market or not. If a member of N.A.T.O. or W.E.U. went Communist or semi-Communist, what would be the position of the other member States? If all the countries of Western Europe became satellites of Moscow, what would be the position of this island?

We have only to pose the question to answer it. We shall not escape from the consequences of such a disaster by seeking in isolation a security which our geographical position no longer gives us. Surely, from this point of view, it will be better for us to play our role to the full and use the influence we have for the free development of the life and thought of Europe.

There is also, a feeling, and I share it, and it is a serious danger felt by many people, that it would be very dangerous if the United Kingdom, by helping to create a truly united Europe, united in every aspect of its life, were to join in a movement tending to isolate Europe from the world and turn its back on the world and look inwards only upon itself. It may, of course, be that there are some people in Europe who believe that this small but uniquely endowed continent can lead a rich, fruitful and prosperous life almost cut off from contact with the rest of the world.

But I do not believe that such people, if they exist, are to be found among the leading men or the Governments of Europe. Certainly, this island could never join an association which believed in such medieval dreams, but if there are little Europeans, and perhaps there are, is it not the duty of this country, with its worldwide ties, to lend its weight to the majority

of Europeans who see the true prospective of events? I believe that our right place is in the vanguard of the movement towards the greater unity of the free world, and that we can lead better from within than outside. At any rate, I am persuaded that we ought to try."

After dealing at length with the particular issues to be solved and the method of negotiating them, The Prime Minister concluded:

"I feel sure that European countries realize that there are special problems affecting our position which must be dealt with by special provisions. Indeed, that was their experience when they formed the Six. For instance, special arrangements were made for France's large overseas interests. There were special protocols for Italy, for Holland and for Germany. These were all the subject of negotiation and debate. We must hope that the Six will regard the special arrangements which we require as negotiable in principle and in that case negotiations will begin.

These must, of their very nature, be protected, detailed and technical. For as well as any matters of principle there is a question of dealing with a large number of separate commodities and reaching agreement on them. No one can be sure that these negotiations will succeed. We hope that the Six will recognize that our decision opens out wide perspectives for future co-operation which could be to our mutual benefit and to the benefit of many other countries, not least those in process of development. We have much to gain from membership of the Community and we have also much to contribute.

A great responsibility lies on the Six as well as on ourselves. . . .

To sum up, there are, as I have said, some to whom the whole concept of Britain working closely in this field with other European nations is instinctively disagreeable. I am bound to say that I find it hard to understand this when they have accepted close collaboration in even more critical spheres (i.e. defense). Others feel that our whole and sole duty lies with the Commonwealth. If I thought that our entry into Europe would injure our relations with and influence in the Commonwealth, or be against the true interest of the Commonwealth, I would not ask the House to support this step.

I think, however, that most of us recognize that in a changing world, if we are not to be left behind and to drop out of the main stream of the world's life, we must be prepared to change and adapt our methods. All through history this has been one of the main sources of our strength.

I therefore ask the House to give Ministers the authority—not to sign a treaty—but to find out on what honorable basis such a treaty could be put forward for the decision of the House."

A more rapid growth in Britain's population is confirmed by preliminary census counts. The drift of population is toward the south of England and away from the centers of large cities. In Scotland the drift from the Highlands and the border continues.

Britain's 1961 Population Censuses

The population of Britain has grown more rapidly in the last ten years than at any time since the first decade of the twentieth century. The chief reason for this more rapid growth has been the recent increase in the birth rate. These are some of the main conclusions to be drawn from the preliminary reports* on the 1961 population censuses of England and Wales, Scotland and North Ireland, reports which were published less than seven weeks after the actual taking of the censuses on April 23.

The figures in these reports are provisional, being based on summaries submitted by the eighty thousand enumerators and they provide only the most urgently needed information, mainly the number of males and females, in the different administrative areas. Final census reports, based on detailed analyses of the census returns, will begin to be published toward the end of the year. Calculations are being greatly accelerated by the use of IBM computers.

Population nearly 52¾ million

Population censuses of the United Kingdom are taken regularly every ten years (except during the Second World War). On the basis of the preliminary reports, the population of the United Kingdom at the 1961 census date was 52,673,221, compared with 50,225,224 in April, 1951, a total increase of nearly 2½ million and an average of about 0.4 per cent per year.

The most rapid increases were in eastern and southern England, and in those parts of south-eastern England which lie outside greater London. The highest rates of increase of all were in the New Towns and similar areas, such as Harlow, in Essex. The smallest increases—and some actual decreases—were in the remoter rural areas in north Scotland and Wales, from which there is still a considerable drift of population, and in Greater London and the other large conurbations, such as Birmingham and Glasgow, as more and more people are living beyond, although still working within, the administrative limits of the area.

The population of the County of London has fallen by a quarter since

*Census 1961, England and Wales, Preliminary Report
Preliminary Report on the Sixteenth Census of Scotland, 1961

1931, and all but four of the twenty-eight London Metropolitan boroughs have shown a fall in numbers over the past ten years. Birmingham is still the second city in Britain, but its population of 1,105,651 is slightly smaller than in 1951.

The ratio of females to males of all ages fell from 1,083 per 1,000 at 1951 census to 1,067 per 1,000 at the latest census. This is the net result of two opposing forces. On the one hand the preponderance of male births has been enhanced by a general reduction in still-births and miscarriages (which are more common among male babies); on the other, women's expectation of life has lengthened faster than man's so that their predominance among the elderly has increased markedly. High ratios of women to men are found in the London and south-eastern region, which offers a wider range of employment opportunities for women, and in all areas attractive to the elderly and retired.

England and Wales

In England and Wales, the annual rate of population increase since 1951 was 0.51 per cent and the preliminary count of population at census date was 46,071,604. Of the total intercensal population increase of 2,314,000, 1,962,000 is accounted for by natural increase while the balance of 352,000 is attributed to net immigration. It is of interest that the preliminary census count differs by only 21,000 (one-twentieth of one per cent) from the estimate made prior to the census by the General Register Office on the same basis as the annual intercensal estimates by taking account of natural increases, and the somewhat incomplete information about migration flow. Density of population in England and Wales as a whole is thus confirmed at 790 persons per square mile of land and inland water — greater than any other country in Europe except the Netherlands. Regionally the general picture is of a continued movement of industry to the south, the growth of dormitory areas on the outskirts of conurbations, and—an aspect of an ageing population—a filling up of south coast retirement areas.

The preliminary census report on England and Wales also contains tables showing the number of private households and dwellings in different administrative areas. For England and Wales as a whole the number of dwellings is estimated at 14,647,922, only 50,000 less than the number of households. Some vacant dwellings, possibly as many as 3 per cent of the total number, are included in the above figure.

Scotland and Northern Ireland

In Scotland the preliminary census count, 5,178,490, is some 30,000, or about half of one per cent, less than the estimates previously made for

the same date. The Intercensal increase in population was thus only 82,075, an actual increase of 336,776 being offset by net emigration of 254,701, (much of it probably to England). The highlands and the border counties with their rugged terrain again showed net population decreases resulting from substantial net loss by migration, the net decrease in the highland counties during the decade being slightly greater than that in the previous two decades, while the net decrease in the border counties was about three times as great as in the previous two decades.

Population of Northern Ireland rose by 52,200, or 4 per cent, in the intercensal period to a total of 1,423,127 persons.

The Final Reports

The first of the final figures to be available will be those giving local populations with details of sex, age, marital condition, birthplace, nationality and with figures for dwellings, rooms and households in each local authority area. National summary tables and tables based on the ten per cent of returns which included additional questions about industry, occupation, education and residence, will be published separately, probably starting in about two years time. The first volumes to be issued are likely to be on population and housing and will be followed by others on population movement, housing and households, workplace movements, occupation, industry and industrial status, education, scientific and technological qualifications, duration of marriage and family size. To make the data available as soon as possible, they will be published without detailed commentaries which will be provided later if thought helpful.

Population of the UK 1851-1961.

	1851	1901	1951	1961
England	16,764,554	30,509,234	41,159,213	43,430,972
Wales	1,163,055	2,018,609	2,598,675	2,640,632
Scotland	2,888,742	4,472,103	5,096,415	5,178,490
Northern Ireland	<u>1,442,517</u>	<u>1,236,952</u>	<u>1,370,921</u>	<u>1,423,127</u>
Great Britain and Northern Ireland	22,258,868	38,236,898	50,225,224	52,673,221

The Work of the Arts Council of Great Britain

by

Eric W. White

Assistant Secretary of the Arts Council

The Arts Council of Great Britain developed from CEMA (the Committee for the Encouragement of Music and the Arts) established during the war to bring drama, music, ballet and the visual arts to people evacuated from the big cities and incidentally to provide employment for artists whose usual outlets and opportunities were being diminished by the effects of war. At first CEMA was a patron of "do-it-yourself" activities in music and drama, but it soon began to enlarge its sphere of influence. It recruited "Music Travellers", professional singers and instrumentalists who went off on their own and gave concerts, assisted by local talent, wherever they could find an audience. It developed a popular scheme of factory concerts in the lunch-time and midnight breaks. In 1943, it took over from the Carnegie U.K. Trust the scheme for helping big city orchestras to visit towns which could not afford first-class symphony concerts and enabled those orchestras to operate on a full-time basis. It provided People's Concerts in areas where workers were heavily engaged on war work, concerts at which artists of the calibre of Yehudi Menuhin and Kathleen Ferrier came into contact with a new and exciting audience. Concerts were given, too, in churches, hospitals and air-raid shelters. In fact before CEMA was a year old it was supplying 400 concerts a month.

A similar pattern was developed with drama. Professional companies were raised and sent on circuits which included many areas where plays and players had never been seen before. The Old Vic, driven from its London home by the war, made many such tours; so did the Sadlers Wells Ballet and Opera Companies. In 1940 over 300,000 people visited exhibitions of paintings, prints and industrial design. Private owners sometimes lent their whole collections and pictures from the Royal Academy, the Tate Gallery and the Official War Artists were also on loan. In 1942, CEMA began its own program of touring exhibitions and also took the lead in publicising and diffusing postwar plans in the field of architecture, town planning and industrial design.

CEMA began as a voluntary effort financed by a £ 25,000 grant from the Pilgrim Trust, but within four months the Government, through the (then) Board of Education, had provided another £ 25,000. By March 1942, CEMA was so successful that the Pilgrim Trust was able to withdraw, having given no less than £ 62,500 to the experiment.

At the end of the war, on June 12, 1945, the Government announced that as CEMA had shown there would be a lasting need for a body to encourage the knowledge, understanding and practice of the arts, the Government had decided to establish the Arts Council of Great Britain which, unlike its progenitor, would be responsible to, and financed by, the Treasury. Its object was to "carry the arts through the countryside and to maintain metropolitan standards" and within a few months it was given a Royal Charter.

The Arts Council is not a Government Department. No Minister directs its policies or decides how, and to whom, its grants shall be made. There is no record of any civil servant requiring or directing, or even advising, the Council on what or what not to do, and if ever some action of the Council's is criticised in Parliament, successive Chancellors of the Exchequer (Finance Ministers) have invariably declared that they will not interfere with the Arts Council's discretion. A Treasury official does sit with the Council as an assessor; but he is there to guide, assist or caution the Council on any matters of public finance. The Ministry of Education and the Scottish Office each has an observer on the Council. The Council is however subject to scrutiny by the House of Commons Committee of Public Accounts and the Select Committee on Estimates and, as a recipient of public funds, it is audited annually by the office of the Comptroller and Auditor-General. The Arts Council consists of not more than 16 honorary members appointed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer in consultation with the Minister of Education and the Secretary of State for Scotland. It is run by a small specialist staff; a Secretary-General, a Deputy Secretary and Finance Officer, and Directors for Art, Music and Drama. It has seven senior executives and its total staff (including packers and drivers of the Art Department) only totals 97.

Before Parliament decides the amount of its annual grant, the Council must present the Chancellor with an itemized account of the subsidy which it believes necessary for maintaining the various art, drama and musical organizations which it supports. All the bodies thus subsidized are nonprofit-making. The Arts Council is incorporated as a charity and is thus prohibited from using its funds for profit-seeking purposes.

The yearly grant to the Arts Council—the principal instrument of public patronage in Britain—has gradually been increased from £ 235,000 in

Arts Council Aid to Drama 1959-60

The total amount granted in 1959-60 was £100,000. Thirty three theatre companies received assistance including the Old Vic £20,000, the Perth Repertory £6,500, Birmingham Repertory £6,000, Bristol Old Vic £5,000, Coventry Belgrade Theatre £5,000 and the Glasgow Citizens Theatre £3,000.

Contributions from local authorities provided about one-third as much as the Arts Council.

1945/46 to the 1961/62 grant of £1,675,000. Although this grant is the highest the Council has ever received, it is still one of the lowest of its kind in Europe.

In 1960/61, the Arts Council grant to Covent Garden was about £495,000. For other opera and ballet activities, including Sadlers Wells, which now runs two permanent companies of equal strength and provides touring opera outside London for about 43 weeks of the year, the Council paid out about £350,000 which was expended roughly in the proportion of four-sevenths in the provinces and three-sevenths in London. The Glyndebourne Opera is not state-subsidized.

In drama, the Arts Council supports the Old Vic in London, because it must maintain a large number of players and still performs Shakespeare and the classics at moderate prices. The Council grant also enables this famous company to organize tours overseas. It also helps the English Stage Company giving modern experimental plays at the Royal Court; the Mermaid Theatre on the River at Puddle Dock, and Theatre Workshop at Stratford in East London. In the provinces the Council endeavors to sustain a limited number of repertory theatres, all in their own buildings. They include the Bristol Old Vic, the Birmingham Repertory Theatre, the Belgrade Theatre at Coventry and theatres at Oxford, Nottingham, Cheltenham, Salisbury and Lincoln. The Council's grant to these theatres was substantially increased in 1960/61, and further increases are likely in view of the decision to go ahead with the building of a national theatre.

Higher salaries for musicians have increased the already very heavy costs of running a symphony orchestra. Five permanent symphony orchestras are associated with the Arts Council—the Halle of Manchester, the City of Birmingham Symphony, the Royal Liverpool Philharmonic, the Bournemouth Symphony and the Scottish National. The London Philharmonic and London Symphony orchestras are associated with the Coun-

Britain's National Theatre

The off-again on-again plan for a British National Theatre may be approaching reality. The government announced in July that it is prepared to release £1 million (\$2.8 mn.) toward the capital cost together with an annual subvention of up to £400,000 (\$1.12 mn.) to cover drama, opera and ballet. At the same time the London County Council announced that it would contribute the balance of the capital cost, some £1.3 million (\$3.64 mn.).

The present proposal envisages the participation of the Old Vic, The Royal Shakespeare Theatre and the Sadler's Wells Opera. The theatre would be located on the South Bank. The offer is contingent upon the working out of a scheme acceptable to both the Government and the LCC. The Arts Council will be represented on the Joint Planning Committee.

cil for specific concert promotions. Support is also given to chamber orchestras, contemporary music societies, the National Federation of Music Societies and a number of choral and orchestral societies.

The visual arts have grown in popularity during the past 10 years and the Arts Council has done much to satisfy these growing needs. In the year 1959/60 Arts Council vehicles, working to very close schedules and covering almost 130,000 miles enabled 343 exhibition showings to be held in 154 places of which 151 were outside London. The total insurance of works of art handled by the Council exceeded £3 million. The most important—and also the most popular—exhibition, held at the Tate Gallery, London, in the summer of 1960 traced the career of Picasso from his boyhood in Spain to his recently painted series based on Velazquez's "Las Meninas", which attracted record crowds totalling nearly half a million.

In 1960 the Arts Council gave support to the Festivals at Bath, Aldeburgh, York, Cheltenham, Ludlow, Haslemere, Edinburgh and Swansea. The Royal National Eisteddfod of Wales and the Three Choirs Festival at Worcester were also helped.

The reading of poetry, both by the poets themselves and by skilled readers, gives pleasure yet would hardly be possible without financial help. The Arts Council either promotes or subsidizes such readings. It also helps

the publication of new poetry by subsidizing the work of the Poetry Book Society and has given substantial backing to a Festival of Poetry organized by the Society at the Mermaid Theatre.

Desirable though it is that subsidies for the arts should be made available from central government funds through the Arts Council, it is perhaps even more desirable that local authorities should be able to support the artistic activities that flourish in their particular areas. It was accordingly of special importance when in 1948 the new Local Government Act empowered all local authorities (i.e. county boroughs, boroughs, urban and rural districts) to contribute toward the provision of entertainment, or of premises suitable for the giving of entertainments, or the maintenance of an orchestra, or purposes incidental to the giving of entertainments. These are very wide powers indeed, and they can cover most of the music and drama activities in which the Arts Council is interested.

Local authorities have perhaps been somewhat slow in making use of these new powers. Although in 1959/60 the local authorities in England and Wales, if they had been so minded, could have spent on the arts between them a maximum of just over £ 16½ million, it is doubtful whether in actual fact they used more than a sixtieth of that permissible amount. But there is every likelihood that as they acquire confidence in their new powers and their ability to use them for the good of the community they will act in increasingly close partnership with the Arts Council by subsidizing the artistic enterprises in their areas.

These conceptions of public patronage are relatively new to Britain, and the brunt of what the arts cost to provide is still borne by the audiences who attend them. These audiences are immeasurably larger than the middle-class patronage of 30 or 40 years ago—but they are also less able to afford to pay an economic price for these aesthetic experiences. If the many, therefore, are to enjoy the arts, some elements of subsidy must be provided. The charge upon public funds in aid of the arts is far lighter in Britain than in other countries which practice such systems of subsidy, and there is evidently much to be said for requiring audiences to pay as substantial a share as they can manage for the aesthetic pleasures they enjoy.

The principle of public patronage of the arts has been definitely accepted by all the political parties in Britain. What is equally encouraging is that no elaborate and expensive bureaucratic machinery has been required to administer these subsidies for the arts. Instead of providing itself with the costly luxury of a Ministry of Fine Arts, Britain has adhered to the principle that every theatre and orchestra and opera house should be self-governing, and that the proper role of governments and municipalities is to encourage self-government by regular financial aid.

The resources Britain devotes to scientific research has been rising in recent years. How much does industry get and what does it do with it?

Research for Industry

Ninety per cent of all the scientists who have ever existed are still alive; and it has been estimated that world scientific activity doubles itself every decade.

Total expenditure in Britain on scientific research in 1958-59 was £478 million compared with £300 million three years earlier—40 per cent greater in constant value terms. £478 million is 2¼ times as much as the nation spent on entertainment but only a third of what was spent on clothing. As a share of the gross national product research expenditure represents—1.7 per cent in 1955-56 rising to 2.3 per cent in 1958-59, which compares with about 2.7 per cent of the USA in the latter year.

If the expenditure on research for defense purposes is excluded, the British figure doubled between 1955-56 and 1958-59, from £122 million to £243 million. The proportion of American research devoted to defense is probably slightly larger, and civil research and development country.

An analysis of the 1958-59 figures shows that about two-thirds of the research was paid for from Government sources, although more than half of the research done—nearly 60 per cent—was actually carried out by private industry, working partly on Government contract:

(Cost of research and development carried out
in each sector)

takes something like 1.25 per cent of the gross national product in each

	£ Million	Percentage of all research
Public corporations	6.9	1.4
Private industry	266.3	55.8
Research associations	6.4	1.3
Government	158.9	33.3
University and other	39.3	8.2

A comparison of these figures with those for 1955-56 shows that the research work carried out by Government has risen steeply—from £88 million to £159 million, or 80 per cent. That of industry has risen by a smaller margin—44 per cent. On the provision of funds, private industry is now paying a larger share—a rise from 23 per cent to 29 per cent.

Research and development 1958

	Research expenditure* (£ mn.)	As a percentage of net output	Cost per qualified worker (£ 000)
All manufacturing industries	296.7	3.8	10.8
Ceramics, glass, cement, etc.	3.2	1.1	8.7
Chemicals and allied trades	43.0	5.9	6.7
Iron and Steel	5.1	0.9	6.1
Non-ferrous metals	3.0	2.1	8.5
Non-electrical engineering and shipbuilding	29.4	1.8	8.5
Electrical engineering and electrical goods	64.5	9.8	7.5
Aircraft	100.0	35.7	30.8
Motor and other vehicles and accessories	17.1	3.3	19.8
Precision instruments, etc.	11.6	10.7	13.5
Textile, clothing, etc.	8.6	0.9	8.2
Food, drink and tobacco	5.0	0.6	6.6
Manufactures of wood and paper and printing	2.0	0.26	7.2
Other manufacturing	4.1	1.8	5.3

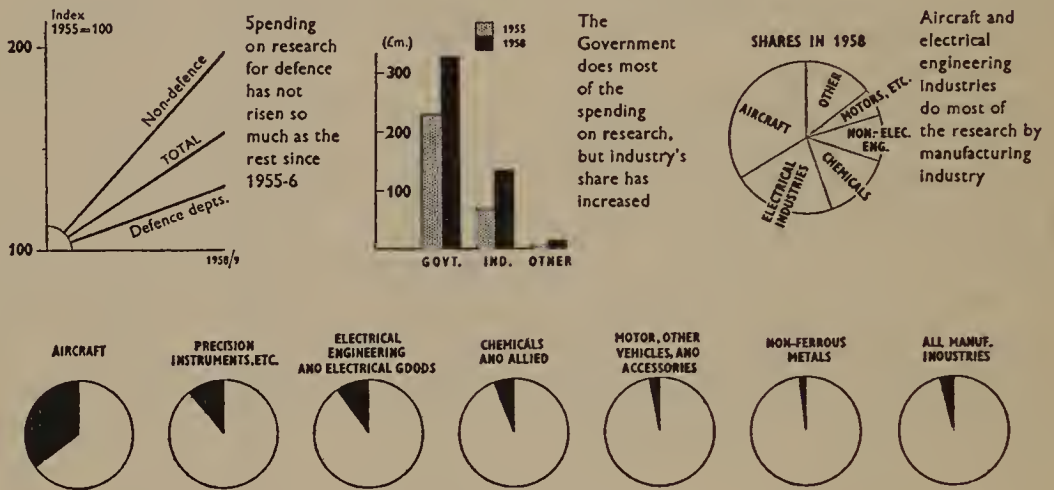
*Including provision of £ 18 million for depreciation and £ 13.7 million in payment to outside research agencies.

Qualified manpower engaged in research in establishments with over 100 employees in manufacturing industry has increased in recent years, from 21,734 in 1956 to 26,225 in 1959, and the reduction in defense contract work has freed some scientists and technicians for civil research and development. Over a quarter of the qualified workers engaged in research in manufacturing industry in 1959 were in electrical engineering and about a fifth in chemicals.

The industries which spend most on research, in total and in relation to net output, are also ones where each research scientist is backed by a great deal of equipment and by many supporting workers. The cost of research per qualified worker is highest in the aircraft industry, and high also in motor vehicles and precision instruments. In other industries the cost varies considerably; the average for all manufacturing industry in 1958 was nearly £ 11,000 per year, but excluding aircraft construction it was under £ 8,000 for each qualified worker. Since 1955 this expenditure has increased in real terms by about a quarter, with an increase in supporting staff for each qualified worker from two to three. Most industrial research (95 per cent in 1958) is carried on within firms' own

Research Expenditure as a Proportion of Net Output

Only in the aircraft industry is research expenditure large relative to net output



establishments. But payments of £13.7 million to outside agencies were made in 1958, 29 per cent to co-operative research associations, 6 per cent to Government laboratories, universities and so on, and the rest to other research institutions. Industries such as cotton, wool and clothing, which include many small firms, make the greatest effort in this way.

For Britain, the further growth of research can take two forms. One is for gaps to be closed, by increasing research in neglected technologies and various branches of engineering where university research has been weak; on the economic production of new materials; on coal utilization; on automatic controls; and on land use and water supplies. The second is for an increasing share of the economy to be taken by those industries which habitually make a greater research effort, mainly science-based ones like electronics. Such growth will, however, emphasize the importance—particularly in relation to the Government's own support of research—of securing the right balance in the total national scientific research effort, so that this effort is applied most strongly where its benefit to the community is greatest. In Britain as elsewhere the problem is to find the men, including the teachers who alone can insure the future supply of trained researchers.

Industrial Welfare Society

by

William Durham

Assistant Director of the IWS

There is no exact counterpart in America to the Industrial Welfare Society of Britain. It resembles the American Management Association in that it runs courses and conferences for management. (More than are provided by any other agency in Britain. Last year some 10,000 delegates attended 200 different courses and conferences). But the field is restricted to personnel management, industrial welfare and training. In so far as it acts as a clearing house of information on personnel management for more than 3,500 member firms, representing 10,000,000 employees and conducts surveys on the current practice, it might be compared with the Personnel Division of the U.S. National Industrial Conference Board, but its research projects are not in such depth; the Society's objective is to cope with immediate problems, arising from snapshot pictures of current practice in any branch of personnel management in Britain. The information department handled some 8,000 enquiries in 1960.

This gives a quick impression of the main scope and the significance of the Society. What of its origins? When the Society started in 1918 it was concerned, as its name implies, purely with industrial welfare; with improving working conditions on the factory floor; and with pressing for pension schemes, sick pay schemes and other fringe benefits.

The Society has always combined a large measure of sound practical work with a strong streak of idealism. It was inaugurated by a group of philanthropic minded employers inspired by the Reverend Robert Hyde (now Sir Robert Hyde), and Seebohm Rowntree, two great twentieth-century leaders of industrial and social reform in Britain.

In this article Mr. Durham, Assistant Director of the Industrial Welfare Society, discusses the work of the Society. Very little information is available on what industry actually spends on "fringe benefits." Accordingly in the Winter issue we will carry an article setting out in some detail the findings contained in a pamphlet published recently by Mr. Durham entitled the "£. S. D. of Welfare in Industry."

Right through the twenties its significance as a Society was not great and it was often in financial difficulties. Royal patronage helped during the thirties and one of its best known activities was in organizing the annual Duke of York's camps which were planned to bring together two very different groups of British Society; the public schoolboys (and of course in Britain the public schools are private), and the sons of dock laborers. It is certain that a great many people in management and public life today were strongly influenced by having attended these camps in their early years. Thousands were given an appreciation of "how the other half lives." They learned to appreciate differences in outlook. Future managers and future trades unionists learned that the underlying nature of individual men was not so radically different that they could never agree. The effect of the camps was therefore important, in the strife-torn thirties and on the post-war world which it fell to these young men to mould.

The war years saw a considerable expansion of the Society's work, but the major development has certainly been during the 1950's. The Society has always been a pioneer in bringing groups of people together to share their ideas and to be stimulated by advanced thinkers. It was early in the field of foremanship training but recently its activities have been more diverse. Subjects on which conferences and courses are arranged include: employee food services, personnel records, work simplification in the office, suggestion schemes, industrial and factory law, producing a plant magazine, mental health, wage administration, pension funds and many others.

The Society does not set out to be a training organization; it is essentially a catalyst aiming at the rapid diffusion of new ideas, with a concentration in the areas which affect the well-being of the individual in his work place. During the inter-war years the Society played a major role in stressing the need for improved working conditions and amenities. Since 1950, as these conditions steadily improved, the IWS has been able to devote more of its energies towards improving human relations in industry by stimulating awareness of the problems of relationships, not only between managers and men, but between supervisor and supervisor.

Among the unusual courses which have been run are three-day meetings held each year for industrial apprentices at Keble College, Oxford, aimed to broaden the thinking of these apprentices, most of whom are nineteen or twenty years old; a mixed conference of foremen and shop stewards (i.e. shop floor union representatives) which is held annually on a residential basis and which breaks down some of the reserve and traditional attitudes between these groups; a one week course on the community in which management grades who may have come from every sort of back-

ground, but usually "white collar" backgrounds, spend a week in a working-class district helping with the local social services; a two-day conference on 'how the City works' to give industrial managers some idea of the role played by various financial institutions in the City of London; a major conference held in 1956 under the patronage of the Duke of Edinburgh on community problems in developing nations.

Part of the work of the Society in recent years has been to arrange for managers from Africa, India, the Middle East and other emergent areas to study British personnel practice on a tutorial basis. The delegates are in small groups of six or eight at a time and spend three months together visiting British firms and being tutored by members of the IWS staff. Annual conferences are also held for overseas executives at Cambridge each year.

Other services to members include advice on sales staff training, employee food services, legal problems, starting and operating a house magazine, a sound filmstrip service and a lively poster service designed to stimulate interest in suggestion schemes. Technical advisers also visit firms to give specific advice on particular issues, stopping short of pure consultancy work. In particular the running of industrial canteens has been the special subject of two technical advisers.

The finances of the organization come mainly from membership subscription. There is no Government or other subsidy or subvention. The courses and conferences are self-supporting, the magazine 'Industrial Welfare' and a range of other publications are also self-supporting. The Society can indeed be considered unusual in that it is an agency which, aimed to propagate an idealistic approach, has been able to do so, and to expand steadily on an increasing budget without any appeals on a charitable basis. Support for the Society is based on the goodwill earned by the activity and practical work of staff through the years, and there seems a bright future ahead. The great problem indeed is to match the load of work with sufficient staff to cope with it.

The organization is controlled by a council of company directors and trades union executives. It is non-profit making and non-party and maintains a neutral attitude on matters concerning industrial relations especially wage levels. Its aim is to be up to date in current practice in any aspect of personnel management, and yet recommend progressive policies to its members. Membership covers about 80 per cent of the large firms in Britain and a rather lower proportion as the size of firms gets smaller. Most American firms operating in the U.K. are members. Its staff numbers 70 which is roughly double the figure of ten years ago.

Control of Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practices

by

John Drinkwater

(an English lawyer who practices in London)

The Restrictive Trade Practices Act 1956 was described at the time of its enactment by Parliament as “a new, perhaps even an adventurous constitutional advance” in the law of the United Kingdom. It might appear remarkable that Britain, which so often in the past has given a lead in many fields of commercial law and trading practices, should have been among the last of the Western trading nations to take legislative action against monopolies and restrictive practices.

In the United States the Sherman Act was passed in 1890; in Canada the Combines Investigation Act was passed in 1923, in which year Germany also took action against cartels and set up a special Cartel Court. In France, as long ago as 1810, the basic provisions against monopolies appeared in the Code Napoleon and these were reinforced in 1926. Norway introduced a registration system of trade agreements in 1926, and Sweden in 1946.

The fact is, however, that the common law of England has from mediaeval times regarded devices such as price-fixing agreements not merely as unenforceable contracts but, until a century ago, as criminal offences, though such agreements have in fact been enforceable in the 20th century provided they were not an unreasonable restraint of trade.

The Monopolies Commission

Britain's first legislative step to amend this situation was taken, not in 1956, but eight years earlier with the enactment of the Monopolies and Restrictive Practices (Inquiry and Control) Act 1948. Under the latter Act there was set up what is now known as the Monopolies Commission.

The Monopolies Commission was not a court; its duty was to investigate matters referred to it by the Board of Trade relating to alleged monopolistic conditions in order to establish whether they existed and, if so, whether they, or any related restrictive practices, were operating against the public interest or seemed likely to so operate. The hearings of the Commission were private, but its findings were published.

If the Government accepted its findings, the appropriate Government Department endeavored to induce the trade in question to drop these features of their trade which were disapproved of by the Commission. If this did not prove a sufficient sanction, the 1948 Act gave power to the Government Department concerned to make, subject to the approval of Parliament, statutory orders forbidding the offending practices and enabling the Crown to apply for an injunction in the event of any breach of such an order.

While operating before the 1948 Act was amended by the Act of 1956 (see below), the Monopolies Commission investigated 14 industries. Its first report was on dental goods and its last, as though reviewing British industry from top to bottom, was appropriately enough on rubber footwear. In 1955 the Commission reported on exclusive dealing, collective boycotts, aggregated rebates and other discriminatory trade practices. It was as a direct result of this report that the 1956 Act was enacted.

The Restrictive Practices Court

The 1956 Act has three important effects. First, it provides for the registration and judicial investigation of a wide range of industrial and commercial agreements. To effect this, the Act created the office of the Registrar of Restrictive Trading Agreements, and established the Restrictive Practices Court, which consists of Judges and, in addition, members appointed on the grounds of their knowledge of or experience in industry, commerce or public affairs.

The Act thus removes from the process of an administrative Commission, and so ultimately from the Government of the day, the task of deciding whether agreements or arrangements between manufacturers and/or traders of the kind made registrable are or are not in the public interest. This task returns to the Judiciary (which had hitherto decided such matters in accordance with the long-established principles of common law), but to a specially constituted Court.

The second effect of the 1956 Act deals with resale price maintenance. It prohibits the collective enforcement of resale prices and thus sweeps away the collective boycotts and private courts which many traders had set up to deal, for example, with breaches of collective agreements as to terms or conditions of trading. So agreements between suppliers or between dealers to discriminate against or impose penalties on dealers or suppliers who fail to observe or impose resale price maintenance are made absolutely unlawful. They cannot be justified even upon the ground that they serve the public interest. A distinction, however, must be drawn between such agreements and resale price maintenance by individual suppliers. The

latter is not merely permitted but facilitated even to the extent that a condition to this effect in a contract of sale is now enforceable not only against the immediate purchaser but also against subsequent purchasers if they take the goods with notice of the condition.

Thirdly, the Act amends the constitution and functions of the Monopolies Commission. Those restrictive agreements which, as the Act now provides, are to be dealt with by the Registrar and the Restrictive Practices Court are excluded from the province of the Commission and it will now be concerned with two main types of investigation. It now deals with matters referred to it by the Board of Trade relating to the supply, processing or export of goods where monopoly conditions prevail, that is where one third of the goods in question are controlled by one supplier, or other kindred arrangements which are not registrable with the Registrar.

Registration of Restrictive Practices

The restrictive agreements which must be registered with the Registrar are agreements between two or more persons carrying on business within the United Kingdom or trade associations of such persons under which restrictions are accepted by two or more parties in the matter of prices, terms or conditions of trading, quantities or description of goods, areas or places of trading or persons with whom business is done. This does not apply, however, to partnerships or agreements between companies belonging to the same group; and there are certain other exceptions laid down in the Act. The whole of the agreement must be registered and not merely that part which deals with the restrictions. The register is public, but contains a secret section.

Once registered, such agreements are brought forward and placed before the Restrictive Practices Court by the Registrar. Until the Court has pronounced the agreements may continue to be operated. The function of the Court is to decide whether such agreements are or are not contrary to the public interest. They are deemed to be contrary to the public interest, and so absolutely void, unless the parties can show:

- that they satisfy one or more of seven prescribed tests; *and*
- that on balance they have not operated, and are not likely to operate, to the detriment of the public.

The tests referred to above are:

- the protection of the public against physical injury;
- benefit to the consumer;
- protection of the parties against a monopolist within the same trade;
- protection of the public against overmighty buyers or sellers;
- protection against unemployment;

- protection of the export trade;
- necessary machinery for carrying out an approved agreement.

If the restriction passes one or more of the above tests, it is then examined to see whether the advantages established in the first test outweigh any detriment to the public, who include would-be new entrants into the particular trade or industry. It follows that every sort of economic and sociological consideration becomes relevant and may be canvassed before the Restrictive Practices Court.

If that Court decides that restrictions are contrary to public policy or to the public interest, the agreement containing them, as has been said, becomes void; but the Court may also make an order restraining all or any of the parties thereto from enforcing it or any similar agreement. Breach of such an order would be contempt of court and punishable as such. Questions of law are reserved to the President of the Court, who delivers the only judgment. The Act allows appeals on such questions only.

Any comparison between the Act which is now the basis of United Kingdom (the Act applies to Northern Ireland as well as Scotland, which has its own quite separate system of law and courts from England) Restrictive Practice Law, and the US anti-trust or anti-combination laws would not only be unhelpful but unfair. As has been said, the Sherman Act was passed in 1890 and since that date an enormous volume of decisions of the US Courts (spread over 71 years in which there have been many large variations in legal and economic thinking), to say nothing of many statutes and voluminous literature, have come into existence.

The US practice in this field of law ranges over a vastly wider field than is covered by the British legislation. One obvious difference is that all proceedings in the Restrictive Practices Court are civil proceedings whereas those brought under the Sherman Act by the Department of Justice may be criminal. Again, it is open to private individuals to institute proceedings in the US whereas, as has been seen, only the Registrar may bring agreements for review before the Restrictive Practices Court.

The Act of 1956 should perhaps be regarded largely as having been designed to meet the recommendations of the Monopolies Commission in 1955 and not as an attempt to emulate existing legislation either in the US or in any other country. Two important exclusions should be noticed. First, the Act does not touch upon restrictive practices on the part of labor, that is to say circumstances impeding the full use of manpower, and in this respect it is similar to the anti-trust legislation of the US. Secondly, no attempt is made in the Act to deal with restrictive trade practices in relation to services, as distinct, from goods.

Cases Heard by The Restrictive Practices Court

The agreements of the following trades (among others) have been examined by Britain's Restrictive Practices Court:—

Chemists Federation

Yarn Spinners

British Constructional Steelwork Association

Blanket Manufacturers

National Association of British and Irish Millers Ltd.

Water-Tube Boilermakers

Scottish Association of Master Bakers

Wholesale and Retail Bakers of Scotland Association

Federation of British Carpet Manufacturers

Federation of Wholesale and Multiple Bakers (Gt. Britain and Northern Ireland)

Phenol (Carbolic Acid) Producers

Black Nut and Bolt Association

The Doncaster Co-Operative Society

Wholesale Confectioners Alliance

Motor Vehicle Distributors

Cement Makers Federation

The Court in Action

The working of the Act can best be illustrated by looking at some of the cases which have been heard under its provisions. The first case to come before the Restrictive Practice Court for hearing concerned the Chemists Federation Agreement. The case was heard in October 1958. The Chemists Federation had imposed on its members (less than half the trade) certain restrictions designed to prevent the sale of proprietary medicines to the public otherwise than by retail chemists. They sought to justify these restrictions on the ground that a qualified chemist, unlike an ordinary retailer—for example, a grocer—was able to advise and warn his customers about the medicines and so to protect them against injury. This argument did not succeed and the Court held that the risk of injury was too slight to justify so wide a restriction, and even if the risk had been greater the restrictions afforded no real protection against it. All the restrictions in the Agreement were held to be void.

A similar fate awaited the next two agreements to be heard by the Court, those of the Yarn Spinners and the Constructional Steelwork Association. The Blanket Manufacturers agreement, which came before the Court in February 1959, provided the first instance of a restriction contained in the agreement being “reprieved.” The restriction related to the minimum standard of substances to be used in the manufacture of certain

types of blanket. The Court held that this provision of the agreement did confer on the public specific and substantial benefits which outweighed any detriment to the public in finding lighter weight blankets at cheaper prices not available in the shops.

At the time of writing only two other restrictions contained in trade agreements have found favor with the Court. The first of these related to a practice of the Water Tube Boilermakers Association whereby when more than one of its members received an inquiry from abroad for a boiler it chose a "selected member." In this effect this meant that the "selected member" was able to quote as low a price as the member quoting the lowest price—that is, where his price was not already the lowest. The customer remained free, however, to place his order with whom he pleased. The court found that the system had been highly successful in the past in securing orders against foreign competition, because it ensured that the keenest possible price, arrived at from the pooled knowledge of all the members, was always put forward. For these reasons the Court held that if the arrangement was dropped there would be a substantial fall in the industry's export performance.

A more recent success of a trade association before the Court is that of the Black Bolt and Nut Association, whose general price restrictions and standard conditions of sale were held to confer a specific and substantial benefit on the public because by operating so that a customer could get all types and sizes through one supplier they avoided the necessity for purchasers to "go shopping," which the Court held would have been a more expensive alternative. The Cement Makers Federations has also successfully defended its agreement.

The list of cases set out in the box on the opposite page is not a complete list of all the cases which have come before the Court, but shows only those cases whose decisions have in some way broken new ground. When a case merely covers the same ground as that of an earlier decision it has not been included in the list.

There is no way of assessing how the decisions in the cases which have already come before the Court have affected agreements in other trades or industries not yet ordered to be registered, but there can be little doubt that the weight of these decisions has been felt in all sections where restrictive agreements exist. Nor is it unlikely that some of the as yet unregistered agreements may well have been abandoned or at any rate much modified as a result of the Court's pronouncements. So much is speculation: what is certain is that the Restrictive Trades Practices Act is working, and is working well, and to the great benefit of the majority of Britain's citizens.

"New Town Blues"

"The new towns of the future may well find it important to aim at a more truly urban design" with higher population densities than have so far been contemplated. So concludes the Ministry of Housing and Local Government in a recent report* and in doing so puts its finger on a seeming incompatibility of aims in modern town planning—the effort to found and foster a new social structure and corporate life and at the same time offer the means for a "happy and gracious way of life."

The Report features the progress of the 12 new towns in England and Wales designated in the last decade. Two of them, Crawley and Hemel Hempstead, are nearly complete. The report points out that in the experience of all new town development corporations there is a general family preference for a house with a garden, front and back, that gives privacy and room for the children to play in safety. The corporations have considered it their duty to provide this sort of accommodation but have also had to comply with regulations designed with an eye to very open and semi-rural development.

In the result, the housing areas have been criticised as being monotonous and wasteful of land. At the same time there are complaints of loneliness. "People moving to a new town from a congested area have missed the friendliness of city life, the intimacy of living at close quarters with neighbors and relatives, the convenience of the shop, public house, cinema or dance hall just around the corner." All these are essentially characteristics of the close-knit urban structure which is a feature of Britain's older towns.

Monotony—in the architecture sense—can in part be overcome, the Ministry feels, by more skillful use of contours, the introduction of apartment houses and of bungalows for older people, variations in design and grouping to give a greater sense of enclosure and unity and the building up to a much greater density particularly nearer the center of the town. But the Ministry is doubtful whether the neighborliness and intimacy typical of urban life at its best can ever be reproduced within the framework of a housing layout based on the garden city idea. Hence the conclusion that the new towns of the future may aim at "a more truly urban design." Nevertheless the malady known as "new town blues" has been greatly exaggerated. It does exist, but social workers and doctors have long recognized it as one of the difficulties in building up a new community. It is one that perhaps only time can overcome.

*Report of the Ministry of Housing and Local Government 1960. Comnd. 1435, \$1.75 plus 8 cents mailing and handling.

The twelve New Towns, on average half-completed, have housed and provided work and community facilities for nearly half a million people. They demonstrate a method by which the congestion and the great sprawl of giant cities could be stopped, green belts maintained and better living and more pleasant working conditions provided for urban people.

The Town Planner at Work*

by

Sir Frederic Osborn

Chairman of Executive, Town and
Country Planning Assn.

The problems thrown up by the growth of towns, and especially of vast metropolitan agglomerations ('million-cities') are of course not peculiar to Britain. They are worsening in all parts of the world and are everywhere much discussed. The New Towns are a remarkable experiment in the practicability of a better form of urban development. They have not solved all the metropolitan problems, but they represent the key to an essential element in the solution.

Britain is still, in percentages, the most urbanized country. Over four-fifths of its 52 million people live in cities and towns; less than five per cent depend on agriculture. London holds between 8 and 9 million people in a continuously built-up tract of land, and in London and six other "million-cities" are half the urban population of the nation. For decades there has been a movement of people from rural counties to big cities, along with a movement of the better-off residents out of their centers to widespread suburbs. This double flow has had two devastating effects: firstly, high pressure on space in and near the centers, where places of employment compete with residences for land; and secondly, lengthening daily journeys between home and work for great numbers of people. The pressure on central land and increases of land value have become so great that it is impracticable to clear slums and rehouse their overcrowded inhabitants at decent standards of density where they are.

It was as a result of the observation of these broad facts 60 years ago that the Garden City Association (now the Town and Country Planning Association) was founded by the late Sir Ebenezer Howard. The Association, a voluntary agency with no government support, initiated two ex-

*Reprinted with permission, from the first issue of Viewpoint, March 1961.

perimental new towns—Letchworth (1904) and Welwyn Garden City (1920). The ‘garden city’ idea was quite simple, yet daring, and at the time revolutionary. The sensible alternative both to urban congestion and outward sprawl was to build at some distance from big cities completely new urban units—not suburbs, but moderate-sized towns in which the inhabitants could find employment as well as homes. This meant that some industry must move out as well as people. Under Howard’s ingenious scheme the whole town site, and a green belt around it, were to be in single ownership in the public interest, so that the size of the town could be limited and planning control applied under the leasehold system.

Letchworth and Welwyn Garden City, though they grew slowly and had many difficulties, proved the practicability of establishing new towns. Industries did settle in them and were successful, people obtained good homes with gardens near work, in pleasant surroundings, and many of the disadvantages of the big cities were avoided.

The Town and Country Planning Association used Letchworth and Welwyn as demonstrations during its campaign for further new towns; and Governments from time to time appointed committees to consider whether public action on similar lines should be undertaken. Nothing was done, however, till the war of 1939-45, when the Barlow Royal Commission’s report (1940) and the bombing of London and other cities aroused the nation’s interest in town planning and in the new-town idea. The war-time (Coalition) Government accepted in principle the Barlow recommendations that a check should be put to industrial expansion in London and other great cities, and that there should be some decentralization to new towns and country towns.

In 1943 a Ministry of Town and Country Planning was set up, and remarkably powerful new planning legislation was drafted; and in 1946 the New Towns Act was passed, with all-party support.

So far, 15 New Towns have been started under the Act of 1946: 11 in England, one in Wales and three in Scotland. Eight of these are so placed as to take ‘overspill’ (of persons and employment) from London; these are at a distance of 20 to 30 miles from the center of the city; and two have a similar relationship to the great city of Glasgow. Two other towns are designed to cater for developing coalfields in Scotland and the North of England; and the rest to provide better housing and community facilities in areas already industrialized.

For each town a separate corporation, appointed by the Government, has set up an expert team to plan and develop the estate. The main finance has been provided by the Government on 60-year loans; but some build-

ings, including factories and private houses, are financed by the occupiers, who have taken sites on long leases. The Government had to finance revenue deficiencies during the early years; but the latest accounts for the 12 towns in England and Wales now show in total an annual surplus. And it can be shown that, as compared with the alternative of high density rehousing in city centers, the new towns have saved the nation many millions of pounds in capital and subsidies.

Advocates of the new-town principle contend that additional new towns are needed. The fundamental difficulties of the great cities are being accentuated by the growing use of private cars. The rise in the standard of living is causing people to demand more and more space in and around their dwellings. Unless new centers of employment are developed well away from the great cities it is contended that the green belt around cities, very popular but already sadly far away, will be further eaten into by irresistible sprawl.

Opposition to this argument comes from some who hold that Britain cannot afford the conversion of farmland to urban uses that city dispersal involves, and that it is necessary to house many more urban workers in flats or apartment houses. To this the advocates reply that the area of land required for new towns, which are moderately compact, is less than would be absorbed by the spontaneous unplanned spread of suburbs certain to result from an attempt to maintain high city concentration—which is unpopular, socially retrograde, and very costly in housing subsidies.

The need of further dispersal is agreed by responsible opinion, but at present the Government relies on the use of the Town Development Act, 1952, under which agreements can be made between big cities and existing country towns for outward movements of business and persons, with some Government support. Some big cities are also considering building their own new towns beyond their green belts. There is controversy as to whether these alternatives can possibly cater with sufficient speed for the amount of dispersal needed to enable city redevelopment to proceed on satisfactory space standards. It is probable that all the available methods will have to be used as the scale of the problem reveals itself.

Among the various methods of promoting dispersed urban development in Britain are the Government's powers to prevent the settlement or substantial expansion of industries in over-concentrated cities, and to assist their settlement in areas threatened with unemployment. There is no doubt that this system of restriction in certain places and encouragement in others is going to be a major factor in a policy for the better distribution of the population.

In Parliament:

“Private Bills”

Parliament, may be expected to pass fifty or sixty Public Bills—those on which the great debates on policy are held—in one year. Besides those there may be thirty or so Private Bills, Bills promoted not by the Government or by a Member of Parliament but by individuals and organizations outside.

These organizations may indeed be much concerned with the public interest. A local government authority, wishing to better the terms on which it can borrow money, or wishing to set up new municipal service for its citizens, may go to Parliament to ask for the necessary authority.

Powers asked for can be very varied and wide. At one time the way to get a divorce in England was by private Act of Parliament—an expensive business. And the story goes—it may well be true—that the Town Clerk of some borough that was promoting in Parliament a Bill to extend its powers, slipped in a clause for his own benefit: “And that the Town Clerk’s marriage be, and hereby is, dissolved.”

Be the truth of that particular story as it may, it is a fact that many interests at less than the national level have to be regulated by Act of Parliament. This is done by the Private Bill procedure. Local authorities, public agencies of one kind or another, trustees of charitable institutions, even private families, may go to Parliament to have their powers defined and broadened.

In the last session of Parliament there were rather more than thirty Private Bills being dealt with. They all touched some public interest more or less importantly—the alteration of a trust deed, the diversion of a stream, the enclosing of some piece of common land—and most went through Parliament with no great questions needing to be asked. The hey-day of this kind of legislation in Britain was during the Industrial Revolution when railroads were being driven across the country and Parliament was asked for, and gave, powers to acquire the necessary land even against the will of some of its owners.

But the need for such legislation still exists. There is before Parliament just now, for example, a Shakespeare Birthplace Trust Bill. This Trust in

fact enjoys its present powers under a private Act passed some thirty-one years ago which authorizes it to perpetuate and honor the name of William Shakespeare; to promote in every part of the world the appreciation of his plays and other works and the general advancement of Shakespearean knowledge; and, of course to look after the Stratford properties associated with Shakespeare.

The Bill is a fair example of one of the comparatively smaller uses of the Private legislative procedure: it widens the potential scope of the Trust's activities; it alters its institutions; and it makes its power more responsive to current needs.

A Bill about Shakespeare may be reckoned something more congenial than usual and out of the ordinary in the Private Bill Office. There is often sterner stuff to be dealt with. Thus when in 1943 the Grand Union Canal Company wanted to launch out on to broader waters to form an ocean steamship line it promoted a Bill. When a railroad wished to set up a savings bank for its employees a private Bill was needed. When it was thought necessary to apply the enormous funds left by Baron Hirsch for settling Russian Jews in Palestine to the settling of Jews of other nationalities there, a Bill had to be promoted.

One of the learned Clerks of the House of Commons, Dr. Eric Taylor, has written a book on its work in which he makes the very true remark that the long and interesting history of Private Bill legislation "would itself furnish material for a complete social history of England." Early monarchs caused Bills of Attainder to be passed to get rid of their personal enemies; individuals got fishing rights; groups or companies got rights to build highways and collect tolls for their use; people were made entitled to enclose common land—a procedure that did, after all, usually lead to better cultivation; railroads and canals were made.

These were Private Bills. Very largely they touched public interests. And so it is today. The occasions for the private citizens to resort to Private Bill procedure are fewer. But they do occur. Public authorities need them. Parliament will be watchful—as some recent instances have shown—to see that local government does not thus acquire powers that ought to be enjoyed by public agencies nation-wide or not at all. Many matters that used to be dealt with under this kind of legislation are now comprehended in general acts. But Parliament must still find time—and it does so—to deal with these local and personal issues. They may be of modest moment. They could blow up into large issues. In any case Parliament treats them with care and respect.

The benefits of an "affluent society" make it easy to forget that two-thirds of the world's population subsist on an income of less than \$100 a year. India, a country of grinding poverty and vast potential, has just entered upon its Third Five-Year Plan.

India's Second Five-Year Plan*

by

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Editor, "*The Eastern Economist*", New Delhi

India's Second Five-Year Plan ended on March 31, 1961, and April 1, 1961, marked the beginning of the Third. This is an appropriate time at which to look back over the hopes and fears raised by the Second Five-Year Plan and to compare performance with aspirations. Even more it is an occasion, for those who are looking forward and not back, to weigh events between 1956 and 1961 as a "proved prototype" in the making of Indian economic progress.

On the face of it, the division of Plans into five-year periods tends to create the impression that each Plan can be made to stand apart; this is the wrong way to look at Indian progress, which is the unfolding of a continuous, and broadening, canvas and not a series of starts and stops. The essential point that each Plan grows out of its predecessor and merges into its successor lends historic perspective to a series of interesting, but inadequate, statistical annual estimates.

From these statistics, it is all too easy to look upon India's economic progress as being a fitful and fluctuating thing depending, as of old, on the gamble in the rains, and, more recently, on the fluctuating volume of foreign assistance. The point that there is a hard and expanding kernel of industrial and agricultural development core which rises above both can easily be lost if one looks minutely at the reverses which take place from time to time in an economy dominated by agriculture, and now dominated continuously by pressures on its external payments.

Not, indeed, that one should be blind to the past. There are important respects in which, for example, the First and the Second Five Year Plans are based upon India's immediate past. The existence of the sterling balances was one of the blessed fruits of the World War II, no less, perhaps, than the acceleration of Indian independence itself. But for the fact that these sterling balances were there, much of the structure of India's Second

*Reprinted, with permission, from the May 1961 issue of the Federation of British Industries' Review.

Five Year Plan would have been substantially different. This is not negatived by the point that during the First Five Year Plan the sterling balances were, in the event, not a necessity and were higher at £561.4 million than at the beginnning.

In this respect, as in prices and raw materials, the First Five Year Plan bore no stresses and strains. It was conceived timidly, more in the line of the stagnation of 1947 to 1951 than as a bold stroke into fresh fields and pastures new. It provided for a rise of total national income of only 11 per cent and per capita income of 5 per cent at the end of five years. Even when, with great jubilation, a rise of national income of 18 per cent was recorded, few people realized that of this 18 per cent about half had come from "unplanned" and, on the whole, unexpected sources, mostly agriculture, unattended by irrigation or fertilizers. This was perhaps a blessing in disguise. For the Second Five Year Plan, broad, vigorous and imaginative in purpose, was born out of the confidence that the First Plan created, just as the First Plan bore the mark of diffidence which presided at the time of its birth.

By and large, the First Five Year Plan left initiative to the private sector, and entrepreneurship was largely exercised by the great managing agency houses under the impetus of, firstly, significant unutilized capacity in their existing plants, and secondly, an expanding home market in which government finance played only a moderate part. In the Second Plan the pace of both investment and market expansion was greatly increased by the fact that investment in the public sector was more than twice the figure of the First Plan and the whole financial operation, both on foreign exchange and rupees, was powered by the public sector, one indicator of which was that deficit financing was planned high at about £900 million; fortunately this figure has not been exceeded as was once feared. Heavy industry also became the special responsibility on the public sector. These "Category A" industries were described as "basic" in the Industrial Policy Resolution of May, 1948, and include steel, coal, petroleum, fertilizers and power.

Developments in the intervening years have caused current uncertainties in regard to the interpretation of Category "A" industries. Undoubtedly, there has been a dramatic change in fertilizers and a vital change in coal with the withdrawal of the restriction in respect of mining of coal in "contiguous areas" by private coal companies. This has been partly on the powerful recommendation of the World Bank Mission whose incisive report last year has influenced Government policy in more respects than one. But the major change is due to a dramatic failure in the public sector steel plants to receive the coking coal required, postponing the starting up

of blast furnaces and the actual shutting down of two blast furnaces at Rourkela and Bhilai once started.

Today, Indian policy on steel and coal expansion might be said to be non-monopolistic so far as public sector operation is concerned. This at least is a major development since the thinking of early 1958 when the Third Plan was formulated on the assumption that new plants in these industries were exclusively for the public sector.

In terms of targets and performance, how can the success of the Plan be assessed? The usual national income figures are encouraging with the national income for 1960-61 estimated at over £9,750 million at 1952-53 prices against £7,500 million at the beginning of the Plan. There has been a rise of about a little over 20 per cent in prices which makes the real achievement of the Plan somewhat less spectacular than the money figures might suggest. Nevertheless, real national income has risen 20 per cent in five years and, for the first time, this year, India's national average per capita income has passed the £25 mark—a pitably low figure which indicates only too poignantly the extent of the challenge.

A peak production of 77 million tons of foodgrains highlights achievements in agriculture which have also been substantial in terms of the increased production of sugarcane, jute and cotton, though jute in the current year had a bad set-back. Agricultural production between 1950-51 and 1960-61 has risen about 35 per cent. Organized industrial production seven per cent per year.

The pattern of consumption during the last decade has taken an encouraging turn and sizeable increases have occurred in a large number of commodities connoting welfare. Sugar consumption, for example, has risen from 7 lbs. per head in 1950 to nearly 11.4 lbs. per head in 1960. Domestic electricity has nearly trebled consumption on a per capita basis from 1.46 KWH to 4.18 KWH. This is also the case with bicycles (0.75 per thousand of population to 2.32 per thousand of population), sewing machines (0.15 per thousand of population to 0.51 per thousand of population) and radio receivers have risen 123.8 per million of persons to 696.4 per million of population. Everywhere trends are markedly upward, but particularly high rates are exhibited in the field of durable consumption goods. The element of discretion is entering sharply into Indian middle-class urban expenditure.

It is true that a substantial price has been paid for these successes. India's sterling balances have been reduced to a fifth of what they were in 1955, and India has moved from a creditor position of £500 million to an adverse position with substantial commitments on account of deferred payments and loan repayments which are heavy burdens on the Third and

India *Index of Industrial Production*

(Base: 1951 = 100)

	1952	1956	1959	1960**
<i>General Index</i>	103.6	132.6	151.9	167.8
Coal Mining	105.6	114.9	137.1	149.5
Sugar*	134.0	166.5	186.8	—
Tea*	98.6	106.0	113.5	—
Vegetable oil products	110.7	148.3	183.8	205.5
Cotton textiles	102.3	117.5	111.5	114.2
Jute textiles	107.6	127.3	125.4	128.2
Paper and Paper board	104.2	146.6	222.9	259.8
Chemicals and chemical products	117.9	171.1	227.5	238.0
Iron and Steel	102.2	119.4	163.0	197.0
General engineering and electrical engineering	92.3	218.1	287.8	327.4
Manufacture of transport equipment	76.8	178.7	219.2	273.2
Electricity generated	104.5	164.1	248.5	272.2

*Adjusted for seasonal fluctuations.

**Estimated

Source: Indian Central Statistical Organization.

Fourth Plans. Prices have already risen by over 25 per cent and this is not the end of the story. The very size of the Third Five Year Plan, which is to attempt to accomplish in five years what the same investment in India has accomplished in the last ten years, will generate even fiercer inflationary impulses.

The pressure of unemployment has been disappointing, with no indication that even in the Third Plan will India catch up with her rate of population growth which unhappily has now risen, it is believed, to 1.8 per cent per year from a figure of 1.3 to 1.4 per cent at the beginning of the Plan. The substantial progress in national income of nearly 40 per cent in two Plans has been halved in per capita terms because of the rise in population. There are large areas in the country which, because of all these factors, have not felt the exhilarating effect of change or participation in the Plan. This is, however, much more a measure of the magnitude of the task than a failure of the Plan itself.

The Second Plan has been marked by the advent of the new industrial estates which have provided a wide measure of participation from new entrepreneurs who, but for adequate Government support, would never have been able to enter the field.

An industrial estate in the Indian Union consists of a large factory area with buildings, power and water laid on. An entrepreneur can get machinery on an instalment basis from the Small Industries Corporation and loans from the State Bank of India as well as other institutions. There are still difficulties, but the major elements of supply and in particular raw materials, even if imported, are underwritten by the Government or Development Loan Fund allocation. From a social and political point of view, if not yet from the point of view of their contribution to production, a major industrial revolution was thus placed upon the Indian scene. In time small industries will measure up to the large producers.

The private sector has had a remarkably wide role to play. It is still generating about 90 per cent of the national income. It is, on the whole, maintaining profitability in organized industry and it has broadened its shoulders by the creation of a vast number of new industries in which new men are rising with Government assistance to take their part in both production and trading.

Undoubtedly, there is no room for complacency, but nothing would be more uncritical than to dismiss the success story of the last decade as insufficient merely because of the inadequate impression made on employment and because of its great dependence now on foreign help. India's "take-off" into a self-generating economy may not take place in this decade, but there is no reason to suppose that it will be delayed beyond fifteen years. Perhaps it is as well that one cannot tell where the hump in economic affairs is until one has crossed it. For nothing averts effort so much as the immediate proximity of success. That at least is not to be India's lot; she is in for the long haul. Slowly, but not less surely, shoulders are broadening for the task; meanwhile living in the perpetual challenge of India is its own reward.

India's Fifteen Year Economic Plan

India will prepare a detailed plan for the next fifteen years so that short-term programs can be attuned to long-range perspective. Prime Minister Nehru in making this statement in Parliament on August 21 said he hoped India would achieve a per capita annual income of \$110 and a national income of nearly \$71.4 billion by 1976. The present incomes are estimated at \$69 and \$30.45 billion respectively.

New Nations and Development Issues

- **“AFRICANIZATION”: PROGRESS AND PROBLEMS**
 - **EMPIRE TO COMMONWEALTH**
 - **BRITISH ECONOMIC AID FOR AFRICA**
 - **EAST AFRICAN HIGH COMMISSION**
- **HEALTH IN AFRICA—BRITAIN’S CONTRIBUTION**

I

“Africanization”: progress and problems

by

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Dr. Nkrumah, President of Ghana, speaking in Delhi in January 1959, commented that there had been a smoother hand-over of power at the administrative level in India than Ghana. This was possible since India’s first Universities were established in 1857, and the first Indians entered the Indian Civil Service during the 1870s.

In Africa, after World War II, progress toward independence has been rapid beyond all expectation. As a result—and in marked contrast to India—something of a crash program has had to be carried out in these post-war years. The starting signal for this was Nkrumah’s coming to power in the Gold Coast in 1951, and his stopping in the same year the recruitment of expatriate personnel on a permanent basis. In Ghana, as in other territories, the intermediate period of internal autonomy before the grant of full self-government has proved invaluable in the preparation for independence—not least in regard to the Civil Service.

Already, in 1946, the Devonshire Committee, set up in the United Kingdom to review the training for the Civil Service of the whole of the then dependent territories, stressed the need to bring local people increasingly into the picture. Thus the training courses of the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge and London have contained an ever rising proportion of Africans. The flexibility of the system has permitted a ready adaptation to the changing needs of these people. A special course has also been devised at Oxford for future members of the Nigerian Diplomatic Service.

Yet the nationalism of emergent nations does not always permit of their continuing to use facilities, however developed and specialised, in another country. They often prefer to establish their own Schools and centers of training. Others, and particularly smaller territories, continue the old connection, seeing that their officers derive certain benefits from a widening of horizons while in training. In Northern Nigeria, where secondary education had hardly begun, an Institute of Administration has been set up. Since 1957 it has been giving future District Officers a basic training before some come on to Oxford.

This Northern Nigerian Institute was established, in 1953, originally for the training of local government officials. This part of government machinery, through district and other councils on a British pattern, has been much developed since the passage of Local Government laws in the former British West African territories from 1951 onward. For the training of their clerks and finance officers, courses have also been run at Ibadan, Nigeria, in connection with the University College there since April 1953, assistance in some courses being given by University lecturers temporarily seconded from the United Kingdom.

Training and training schemes have been and continue to be the central point in all "Africanization". Aside from the provision of special courses for specialist jobs, the real need lies in the development of the various countries' own education systems. Shortly after World War II, University Colleges were established in Ghana (then the Gold Coast) and Nigeria, While the Colleges at Fourah Bay in Sierra Leone and Makerere in Uganda were raised to the same status. Since then a University College has been established at Salisbury for the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, and the Royal Technical College at Nairobi has dropped the word "Technical" from its title in becoming a University College in the University of East Africa which is now being set up.

This last is but part of a new stage of development for which the guideposts in Nigeria have been set by the wide-ranging and striking recommendations of the Ashby Commission on Education which reported in 1960. It said that "a stupendous undertaking" lay ahead which would cost large

sums of money; to supply these "the Nigerian people will have to forego other things they want", but even this would not be enough. "Countries outside Nigeria will have to be enlisted to help with men and money. Nigerian education must for a time become an international enterprise." In this spirit 150 young Americans are shortly to go as teachers to East Africa on a temporary basis under an International Co-operation Administration (I.C.A.) scheme. This last is but one example of the recent increased attention being paid to the secondary school problem and the training of teachers. While there are no present signs that any African territory will follow the example of Malaya in setting up a College in Britain for its potential teachers, one of the intentions of the Commonwealth Education Conference at Oxford in 1959 was that there should be a large expansion of places for overseas students to train as teachers in Britain.

The bulk of the pupils at the University College at Ibadan have come from southern Nigeria but large numbers of Nigerians, including Northerners, have been going for University and other training to Britain, the United States and Canada. In April 1959 there were 3,056 Nigerians studying in Britain—877 in Universities, 859 at the Inns of Court, 86 doing teacher training and 1,234 in other further educational establishments such as Technical Colleges, while another 250 students were in the United States and Canada. This build-up of training resulted in more than half of the Nigerian Federal Public service being "Africanized" at the time of independence, on October 1, 1960. The flow of University graduates in Nigeria is now such that the institution of competitive examinations for the administrative branch of the Civil Service has become a possibility.

Yet problems remain. Nigeria, like other developing countries, is expanding its Civil Service rapidly, and this at a time when there are many other calls on trained people. Some observers consider that the opportunities lavishly advertized by commercial firms may cream off the best University graduates. Since 1948 the United Africa Company has been running its own training schemes so that today it has five Technical Training Schools in Nigeria, at which some 400 of its employees are studying. The Bank of West Africa could report in 1960 that African managers were in charge of 26 of their branches. In Government itself there is competition for personnel, particularly from the Statutory Corporations which control important sectors of the economic life of many of the newly independent countries. These Corporations also run training schemes and send men on scholarships to the United Kingdom.

Nevertheless, the Director of the Royal Institute of International Affairs, London, has concluded in a recent study that there is no need for despair.

He points out how experience has shown that in the new states there is often a crisis of confidence in the last months before independence and in the first months afterwards. Then expatriate resignations take place in greater numbers than the successor Governments would wish; but once this difficult period is passed both Governments and expatriate Civil Servants settle down to a new appreciation of mutual needs, and some former members of the Service may even return on contract.

Independence may not be held back after certain political progress has been attained, but it appears from British experience that other African territories will be bound to experience a crucial period of some three to five years after independence before the young, educated but inexperienced local recruits are ready to undertake fully the highest responsibilities.

Perhaps it is in this period that another and fundamental problem emerges most clearly. Writers in a recent special number of *International Affairs* devoted to Africa have stressed how "Africanization" means "Europeanization" in a cultural sense. The new Government officials and the trainees of the commercial firms are being educated in techniques which are those of a different culture from their own. The West African who has been abroad for education, whether to Britain or to America, is known as a 'been-to'. The term conveys prestige in the new society of West Africa but the person concerned often finds it difficult, on returning home, to settle down again. He has become "a man of two worlds" and possibly, as Mr. Nehru has confessed for himself, at home in neither. There are few, if any, in the new states of Asia and Africa who find it easy to come to terms with their two pasts, their natural and their acquired. There is more than a danger that in the developing cities of West Africa a new society will emerge which, while ruling the country as politicians and civil servants, may be out of touch with the mass of the population. Africa is undergoing a rapid and remarkable transformation but we will be mistaken if we think that the changes can go on without considerable strains, not only economic and political but also personal.

While the adjustments may sometimes be painful, the leaders and the people of Africa are willing that the changes should take place. It is the new élites, transformed by education, who, in building "the world's great cities", deny the poet's assertion about such men that:

"They had no vision amazing
Of the goodly house they are raising."

There is a zest and an élan abroad in Africa which makes it a thrilling continent. This spirit will repay any who are willing to help, either with funds or as individuals, in forming the new cadres of trained men through speeding the process of "Africanization".

II

Empire to Commonwealth

Colonial Constitutional Progress, 1961.

Territory	Population	Present Status
SIERRA LEONE (27,925 sq. miles)	2,400,000	Became an independent sovereign state within the Commonwealth on April 27, 1961.
TANGANYIKA (361,800 sq. miles)	9,237,000	Became fully self-governing internally on May 1, 1961. Will become an independent sovereign state on December 9, 1961.
THE WEST INDIES FEDERATION (8,029 sq. miles)	3,115,000	Will become an independent sovereign state within the Commonwealth on May 31, 1962. A referendum to be held in Jamaica on September 19, 1961 will decide whether Jamaica will remain in the Federation.
BRITISH GUIANA (83,000 sq. miles)	558,000	The election on August 21 held under the new constitution granting full internal self government resulted in a victory for Dr. Cheddi Jagan, leader of the Peoples Progressive Party.
KENYA (224,960 sq. miles)	6,551,000	Council of Ministers with elected multi-racial majority appointed April 27, 1961. Further constitutional talks at an early date agreed to on June 28, 1961.
UGANDA (93,981 sq. miles)	6,517,000	New Government with 10 elected Ministers appointed April 13, 1961. Strong central democratic government, with Buganda in a federal relationship and Toro, Ankole and Bunyoro in semi-federal relationship, recommended by Relationship Commission report published on June 20, 1961. The report is to be considered at a constitutional conference in London in September 1961. African Chief Minister appointed July 2, 1961.

ZANZIBAR (1,020 sq. miles)	304,000	Elections held on January 17, 1961 produced no clear majority for any party. Further elections on June 1, 1961 resulted in a coalition government and internal self-government.
MAURITIUS (808 sq. miles)	650,000	Two-stage advance to full internal self-government agreed on at constitutional conference in London from June 26 to July 7, 1961.
NORTHERN RHODESIA (288,130 sq. miles)	2,300,000	Announcement by the Secretary of State for the Colonies on June 26 giving details of constitutional proposals announced on February 21, 1961 providing for Legislature including 45 elected members and not more than 6 official members, and an Executive Council with a non-official majority.
SOUTHERN RHODESIA (150,000 sq. miles)	3,069,000	New constitution transferring reserve powers held by United Kingdom to Southern Rhodesia published on June 13, 1961. A referendum in Southern Rhodesia on July 26, 1961, endorsed the new constitution.
NYASALAND (49,177 sq. miles)	2,830,000	Following a new constitution agreed upon in 1960, the Malawi Congress Party won 23 out of 28 seats in the new Legislative Council, giving it a non-official majority.
CAMEROONS (34,000 sq. miles)	1,632,000	Following a plebiscite on March 11 and 12, 1961, the Northern Cameroons (population 791,000) joined Nigeria on June 1, 1961. The Southern Cameroons (population 841,000) will join the Cameroon Republic on October 1, 1961 as a result of a plebiscite held on March 11, 1961.
GAMBIA (4,003 sq. miles)	294,000	Chief Minister and five Ministers with Portfolios appointed on March 30, 1961. Constitutional conference in London from July 24 to 27, 1961 agreed to full internal self-government after elections under a new constitution in May, 1962.

ADEN COLONY (108 sq. miles)	139,000	Ministerial system introduced on January 16, 1961.
MALTA (122 sq. miles)	328,000	The report of the Constitutional Commission published on March 8, 1961, accepted by Secretary of State for the Colonies on the same date, as the basis of a new constitution. This would create a new state of Malta in which the Maltese Government and Parliament would be responsible for domestic matters and concurrent powers in the field of external affairs and of defense.
BRITISH HONDURAS (8,866 sq. miles)	90,400	Elections were held on March 1, 1961 under a new constitution providing for the introduction of a full ministerial system and doubling the number of elected members in the Legislative Assembly.
BECHUANALAND (275,000 sq. miles)	296,000	Elections to new Legislative Council comprising 10 Africans, 10 Europeans, 1 Asian and 14 nominated and official members took place in May, 1961. Under the new constitution there are two Africans on the Executive Council.
SOLOMON ISLANDS PROTECTORATE (11,500 sq. miles)	115,000	New Constitution brought into operation Oct. 1960. Legislative and Executive Councils established for first time. Official and unofficial members of both Councils are appointed by the High Commissioner for the Western Pacific.

A Multi-Racial Commonwealth

During the period April 1960 to March 1961 three British dependent territories became independent—the *Somaliland Protectorate*, *Cyprus* and the *Federation of Nigeria*; and a month later, in April 1961, *Sierra Leone* followed suit.

One of the results of these changes was that the Commonwealth of Nations became, for the first time in its history, an association of states within which the countries of Asia and Africa predominated numerically over those of traditionally British stock.

III

British Economic Aid for Africa

The executive Secretary of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), Mr. Mekki Abbas, observed at the Commission's third session at Addis Ababa in February of this year that "the most significant economic development in 1960 in Africa was the growth of economic assistance."

The British Government is devoting a growing proportion of its steadily expanding overseas aid effort to the developing countries of Africa. Moreover, British business firms which in the past have been concerned with developing natural resources, introducing railroads, and building up trading links between Africa and overseas countries, continue to be keenly interested in sharing in its industrial expansion. The London capital market has also been an important source of capital.

Scale of British Assistance

Although a considerable amount of British Government aid is channelled through agencies of the United Nations, to which Britain is the second largest contributor, the greater part takes the form of bilateral assistance, and commitments in 1960 to African countries amounted to \$166 million; that is nearly half of the total—\$380.8 million—of bilateral assistance to all countries in that year. The marked increase in the size of the British effort for Africa is indicated by a comparison with 1957-58, when actual disbursements totalled over \$64 million.

To Dependent Territories

A special responsibility of the British Government is the development of its dependent territories, and there are several channels through which assistance to them is made available.

Grants under the Colonial Development and Welfare Acts are providing about \$32.2 million a year for African territories for carrying out development plans, especially the building up of basic services.

Loans. The CD and W Act of 1959 also made it possible for the dependent territories to borrow long-term from the British Exchequer in support of their development plans if loan finance is not available from other sources. The total loan finance available for this purpose under the Act is \$280 million for the five years to March 1964. In the calendar year 1960 loans totalling about \$78.4 million were approved for African countries. Interest rates on these loans are those at which the United Kingdom can itself borrow, plus a small service charge. Exchequer loans were also

British Loans and Grants to African Countries

	£ Million		
	1957-58 ¹ disbursements	1960	1960 commitments
Libya	4.4	3.2	3.2
Sudan	0.2	2.7	—
High Commission territories	1.8	4.9	2.5
East African High Commission	0.5	0.6	8.2
Kenya	5.3	7.1	7.4
Tanganyika	1.3	3.4	2.9
Uganda	0.5	7.1	6.0
Somaliland ²	1.3	2.7	2.4
Other countries in East Africa	0.7	0.7	0.1
Ghana	0.6	0.1	0.1
Nigeria	3.7	10.3	20.0
Sierra Leone	0.7	2.3	3.7
Other countries in West Africa	0.5	0.5	0.5
Rhodesia and Nyasaland	1.2	2.5	2.3
Total	22.7 (\$63.6)	48.1 (\$134.7)	59.3 (\$165)
1. Year ending March 31.		2. Now incorporated in Somalia.	

made to Nigeria and Sierra Leone shortly before independence.

Colonial Development Corporation. A notable contribution is being made by the Colonial Development Corporation (CDC), set up in 1948 to develop, often in conjunction with private firms, statutory boards and governments, promising enterprises in the dependent territories. Up to December 31, 1960 about two-thirds of the \$308 million committed by the CDC (whose funds have so far been provided from the British Exchequer) has been in Africa; its projects were concerned in particular with power supplies, agricultural expansion and housing.

Overseas Services Aid

To assist countries in Africa and elsewhere in securing experienced and qualified experts from overseas, the Overseas Services Aid scheme came into effect from April 1961. Under this the British Government has offered to pay the costs, other than the basic salaries, of employing overseas staff in a large number of territories. The annual cost is expected to be about \$33.6 million, much of which will be spent in Africa.

To Independent Countries

Commonwealth. Loans to independent Commonwealth countries in Africa have been provided under Section 3 of Export Guarantees Act 1949, as since amended. Interest rates on these loans are those at which the British Government itself can borrow (plus a small service charge), and the proceeds are used to purchase a wide range of ordinary British goods and services. A loan agreement has been made with Nigeria (\$33.6 million); Sierra Leone has been offered a loan of \$9.8 million for general development purposes; and a provisional offer of \$14 million has been made to Ghana to assist in financing the Volta River project.

Non Commonwealth. Libya is receiving \$9.1 million a year for the five years to 1963-64, to help in balancing its budget. Since 1942-43, British aid to Libya has amounted to about \$112 million. In 1959 a loan of \$14 million was made to the Sudan.

Technical Co-operation

Technical co-operation is regarded by the British Government as one of the most productive methods of assistance for Africa. Apart from the training and education provided under the CD & W Acts for the dependent territories, Britain has offered to provide technical assistance to the newly emerging countries on independence.

Britain thus has a mutual technical assistance agreement with Ghana and similar arrangements with two newly independent countries, Nigeria and Sierra Leone, whereby technical assistance is made available in the form of experts and advisory services, training in Britain for members of the public services, and the supply of equipment for training and research projects. Such assistance is provided only in response to specific requests from the country concerned. At the end of May 1961 Britain also offered to make \$14 million available to the Nigerian Government to help Nigeria meet the capital costs of the expansion of higher education.

Britain also contributes aid to non-Commonwealth countries in Africa through the Foundation for Mutual Assistance in Africa South of the Sahara, to which \$112,000 has been offered in 1961/62 for training and equipment.

Private Initiative

Private firms and others are also concerned on a considerable scale in training African staffs in industrial skills, for example, in petroleum exploration, civil engineering and mining. The British Overseas Airways Corporation (BOAC) has been responsible for training pilots and maintenance staff of several African airlines, as well as for providing some of the latter's initial capital.

IV

The East Africa High Commission

Since 1948 the East Africa High Commission has enabled the territories of Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika and Zanzibar (an area about equal to Western Europe) to co-operate for the provision of a wide range of common services. Considerable economies have thereby been effected, and a forum provided for the working out of common problems.

A body corporate, with headquarters in Nairobi, Kenya, it consists of the Governors of Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika. The East African Central Legislative Assembly consists of ex officio, nominated and elected members. It is empowered to consider and approve the budgets of the High Commission's services, to examine matters relating to these services, and to legislate on specific subjects connected with them.

The total cost of services provided by the High Commission (excluding the self-financing services) has risen from £1.6 million in 1948 to an estimated £5.3 million in 1961-62. In 1960-61 the British Government contributed £595,000, the Kenya Government £1.5 million, the Tanganyika Government £1 million, the Uganda Government over £800,000 and the Zanzibar Government £40,000.

Examples of the High Commission's Work:

Rail, sea and air communications. Since 1950 railway lines totalling about 500 miles have been constructed, port facilities at Mtwara in Tanganyika, Dar es Salaam, Mombasa and Tanga have been greatly improved, and three new major airports have been built.

Inter-territorial research and scientific services. These include the breeding of crops resistant to disease, methods of eradicating the tsetse fly, means of increasing the yield of fish, nutritional problems of tropical countries, research into various tropical diseases, studies of the possibilities of introducing new industries into East Africa and research into improved methods of processing local raw materials.

Educational advancement. The East African Literature Bureau provides books and magazines, mainly to Africans. Since 1948 it has sold over two million volumes, including publication in 26 East African languages, and assisted in the production of African magazines and in the publication of African writers' works.

V

Health in Africa The British Contribution

Ill-health is still a major concern in Africa, where much of the population suffers from high mortality diseases such as broncho-pneumonia and tuberculosis, from debilitating diseases like malaria and bilharziasis, and from such incapacitating diseases as sleeping sickness. In laying the foundations of modern nations in its African dependencies, Britain has done much to meet this challenge of nature by encouraging and assisting efforts to raise health standards.

Advances have been made despite enormous difficulties. Until comparatively recent times most of the African peoples were still primitive and illiterate, there was no sound medical practice on which to build and knowledge of proper hygiene was lacking. In some parts of Africa sparse and irregular settlement, poor communications, combined with low productivity made it difficult to provide regular medical treatment. Added to which the prejudice of people against western medicine has taken time to overcome. The attack on ill health has had to take its place in the general effort to improve the physical and social environment and expenditure on it to be related to all the other programs for economic and social development undertaken in the territories. Nevertheless modern medical treatment, resisted still by many Africans because of rooted superstitions, is reaching more and more people each year.

Health Services

In the century or less of the British connection with African dependencies medical departments have been built up in each territory administering treatment, public health and laboratory services. But this, of course, is only a beginning.

British assistance today takes a number of forms; both governmental and voluntary.

Christian missionaries. Historically, the Christian missionaries pioneered health services in Africa. Their work is still an important adjunct to the services provided by Government. Mission hospitals help to cater for the sick and often also undertake the training of auxiliary medical staff, particularly midwives and nurses. In many cases such hospitals are

subsidized by government to perform allotted tasks; in Nigeria the missions are linked with the government in an extensive leprosy service. Other British voluntary agencies, like the Order of St. John, the British Red Cross and the British Leprosy Relief Association as well as some commercial firms have also made valuable contributions.

British Government assistance is varied. Direct financial aid is given from Colonial Development and Welfare (C.D. and W) funds. Nigeria before independence, received some £17.5 million to assist medical and health schemes. The Mulago teaching hospital in Uganda has been assisted with grants totalling £2.1 million and an additional £1.9 million has been given for other health, water and sanitation projects in that territory. Health projects in Tanganyika have had C.D. and W grants amounting to £1.8 million and assistance has also been given to a number of hospitals. Hospitals and other health projects in Sierra Leone have been granted almost £1.4 million.

Advisory, research and training services have been provided by a number of United Kingdom agencies. The Colonial Advisory Medical Committee, has been helping since 1909 and was reconstructed in 1952 to provide both a forum for discussion of general medical problems affecting African and other dependencies, and a panel of specialist advisers. A medical advisory staff under a Chief Medical Officer at the Colonial Office has devoted much of its efforts to African territories. Important work has also been done by such organizations in Britain as the Bureau of Hygiene and Tropical Diseases and the Commonwealth Institute of Entomology. Unofficial organizations including the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine and the Liverpool and Edinburgh Schools of Tropical Medicine are of great importance as centers both of research and training. Over 600 students from Africa were receiving full time medical training in British Universities in 1960-61 and there were many African nurses in training in British hospitals.

British Personnel. Medical officers and other professional people in the Overseas Civil Service serving African governments have made, and are making, a massive contribution to the improvement of health in the continent. In addition for many years, doctors and nurses have also been recruited for service in Africa by a number of United Kingdom voluntary agencies.

Research into Tropical Diseases

Research in the field of tropical diseases has for many years been one of the most effective branches of British research work on the problems of the dependencies and the new Commonwealth countries.

Research goes back to the turn of the century. The London and Liverpool Schools of Tropical Medicine were founded in 1899, and thereafter continuous research on tropical medicine was carried out in their laboratories. Between 1900 and 1945 some research in the dependencies was also financed by British learned societies, institutes for higher learning, and research foundations and trusts. Sleeping sickness commissions which were organized by the Royal Society at the beginning of the century laid the foundation of modern knowledge of the cause of this disease.

After 1945 the availability of British Colonial Development and Welfare funds greatly increased the extent to which Britain was able to help the governments of the dependencies by research work in tropical medicine. Between 1946 and 1959 a total of £2.9 million was allocated for this purpose in ways recommended by the Colonial Medical Research Committee, the money being spent either in the colonial territories, or in support of research conducted in Britain by such agencies as the Lister Institute of Preventive Medicine and several universities. The money spent in the colonial territories has been on projects ranging from assistance to large research units, self-contained or attached to existing organizations and universities, to projects providing fully or partially for single investigations in the field or laboratory, and grants to departments of universities in the territories for appropriate basic research. Since October 1960 research has been indirectly co-ordinated by the Tropical Medical Research Board.

Current United Kingdom research work in this field is mainly concerned with malaria, leprosy, tuberculosis, heminthisis, filariasis, virus and mollusc-borne diseases and physiological and nutritional problems.

Nutrition

Malnutrition is a particularly stubborn problem. In 1952, an Applied Nutrition Unit was set up in London as a joint undertaking of the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine and the Colonial Office. Its functions are to provide facilities for training personnel from the dependencies in nutrition work; to study and exchange information on tropical nutrition and food technology, and to provide advice and assistance in field work and investigations. Nutrition work is also undertaken by British research organizations in the dependencies. For example, in Uganda the Medical Research Council maintains an Infantile Malnutrition Research Unit at which it has been conducting during recent years investigations into infant growth and nutrition, with special reference to protein deficiency diseases.

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